



CSCE 421: Machine Learning

Lecture 2



Outline

- K-Nearest Neighbor (K-NN)
 - Basics
 - Example & Representation
- Practical use of K-NN
 - How to choose the right *K* and distance metric?
 - How to pre-process the data?
 - What to do in the case of a tie?
- Variations
 - Condensed Nearest Neighbor
 - Weighted Distance K-NN



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Recognizing types of Iris flowers (by R. Fisher)





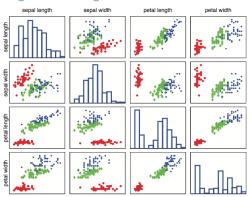


setosa versicolor virginica

Features: the widths and lengths of sepal and petal



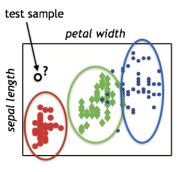
Visualizing features to get better intuition about our data



Each colored datapoint is one sample setosa, versicolor, virginica



Using two features: sepal length & petal width



setosa, versicolor, virginica

Test sample is closer to red cluster \rightarrow label it as setosa



Recognizing types of Iris flowers (by R. Fisher)

Often data is organized in a table Each row is one sample with 4 features and 1 label

```
5.1,3.5,1.4,0.2, Iris-setosa
4.9,3.0,1.4,0.2, Iris-setosa
4.7.3.2.1.3.0.2.Iris-setosa
4.6,3.1,1.5,0.2, Iris-setosa
5.0,3.6,1.4,0.2, Iris-setosa
                              Attribute Information:
5.4.3.9.1.7.0.4.Iris-setosa
                              1. sepal length in cm
4.6.3.4.1.4.0.3.Iris-setosa
                              2. sepal width in cm
5.0,3.4,1.5,0.2, Iris-setosa
                              3. petal length in cm
4.4.2.9.1.4.0.2.Iris-setosa
                              4. petal width in cm
4.9.3.1.1.5.0.1.Iris-setosa
                              5. class:
5.4.3.7.1.5.0.2.Iris-setosa
                                  -- Tris Setosa
4.8.3.4.1.6.0.2.Iris-setosa
                                 -- Iris Versicolour
4.8.3.0.1.4.0.1, Iris-setosa
                                 -- Iris Virginica
4.3,3.0,1.1,0.1,Iris-setosa
```

[Source: https://archive.ics.uci.edu/ml/datasets/iris]



Training Data

- N samples/datapoints/instances: $\mathcal{D}^{train} = \{(\mathbf{x_1}, y_1), \dots, (\mathbf{x_N}, y_N)\}$
- Used for learning representation $f: \mathbf{x} \to y$

Testing Data

- M samples/datapoints/instances: $\mathcal{D}^{test} = \{(\mathbf{x_1}, y_1), \dots, (\mathbf{x_M}, y_M)\}$
- Used to assess how well $f(\cdot)$ will do in predicting an unseen sample

Train and test data should **not** overlap: $\mathcal{D}^{train} \cap \mathcal{D}^{test} = \emptyset$



Classify data into one out of multiple classes

- Input: $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^D$ (features, attributes, etc.)
- Output: $y \in \{1, 2, \dots, C\}$ (labels)
- Model: $f: \mathbf{x} \to y$

Special case: binary classification (C=2)

• Output: $y \in \{1, 2\}$ or $\{0, 1\}$ or $\{-1, 1\}$, etc.



Nearest Neighbor (or 1-Nearest Neighbor, 1-NN)

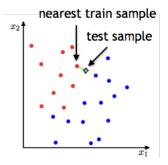
- Assigns test sample x to the closest training sample
- Model

$$y = f(\mathbf{x}) = y_{nn(\mathbf{x})}$$

$$nn(\mathbf{x}) = \arg\min_{n=1,\dots,N} \|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x_n}\|^2 = \arg\min_{n=1,\dots,N} \sum_{d=1}^{D} (x_d - x_{nd})^2$$



Nearest Neighbor (or 1-Nearest Neighbor, 1-NN): Example

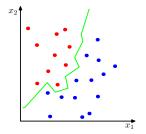


The nearest point to test sample x is a red training instance, therefore x will be labeled as red.



Nearest Neighbor (or 1-Nearest Neighbor, 1-NN): Example

Decision boundary: For every point in the space, we can determine its label using the nearest neighbor rule. This gives us a decision boundary that partitions the space into different regions.



The above decision boundary is very sensitive to noise What would be the solution for this?



Increase number of nearest neighbors to use

- 1-nearest neighbor: $nn_1(\mathbf{x}) = arg \min_{n \in \{1,...,N\}} ||\mathbf{x} \mathbf{x_n}||_2^2$
- 2-nearest neighbor: $nn_2(\mathbf{x}) = arg \min_{n \in \{1,...,N\} \setminus nn_1(\mathbf{x})} \|\mathbf{x} \mathbf{x_n}\|_2^2$
- 3-nearest neighbor: $nn_3(\mathbf{x}) = arg \min_{n \in \{1,...,N\} \setminus \{nn_1(\mathbf{x}), nn_2(\mathbf{x})\}} \|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x_n}\|_2^2$

The set of K-nearest neighbors is

$$knn(\mathbf{x}) = \{nn_1(\mathbf{x}), \dots, nn_K(\mathbf{x})\}\$$

Neighbors nn_1, \ldots, nn_K in order of increasing distance from sample \mathbf{x}



K-NN Model

- Each neighbor in $knn(\mathbf{x}) = \{nn_1(\mathbf{x}), \dots, nn_K(\mathbf{x})\}$ votes one class
- Count the number of neighbors that have voted each class

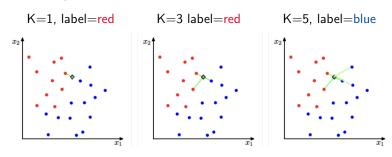
$$v_c = \sum_{k \in knn(\mathbf{x})} \mathbb{I}(y_k = c), \quad c = 1, \dots, C$$

 Assign test sample x to to the majority class membership of the K neighbors

$$y = f(\mathbf{x}) = arg \max_{c=1,...,C} v_c$$

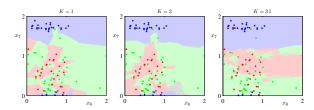


K-NN Example





K-NN Decision Boundary



Number of neighbors K controls the degree of smoothing

 $K \downarrow$: many small regions of each class

 $K \uparrow$: fewer larger regions of each class



K-Nearest Neighbor: Computational Cost

Question: What is the computational cost of K-NN for labelling one test sample $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^D$ given that we have N training data $(D \gg K)$?

- A) O(ND)
- B) O(KD)
- C) O(NK)
- D) O(NKD)



K-Nearest Neighbor: Computational Cost

Question: What is the computational cost of K-NN for labelling one test sample $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^D$ given that we have N training data $(N \gg D)$?

- A) O(ND)
- B) O(KD)
- C) O(NK)
- D) O(NKD)

The correct answer is A

The cost of measuring the distance between the test sample and every sample in the training data is O(D)

The cost of computing distances for all N train samples is O(ND)

The cost of finding the K closets samples is O(NK) (can be optimized) So the total cost is O(ND + NK), assuming D > K it becomes O(ND)

[Nice video source: https://www.voutube.com/watch?v=UPAnUE g5SQ]



Parametric v.s. non-parametric models

- Many possible ways to categorize learning models
- One way is to ask this question
 - Does the model have a fixed number of parameters or does it grow with the amount of training data?
- Non-parametric models (or instance/memory-based)
 - more flexible
 - computationally intractable for large datasets
 - e.g. K-NN
- Parametric models
 - faster to use
 - make strong assumptions about data
 - · e.g. linear regression



Curse of dimensionality

- In a high-dimensional space:
 - · all intuition fails in higher dimensions
 - harder to generalize
 - harder to systematically search
 - harder to accurately approximate a target function
- K-NN is prone to high dimensions



K-Nearest Neighbor: Advantages & Disadvantages

Advantages	Disadvantages	
1. Intuitive	1. Computationally expensive for large-scale problems:	
2. Simple & easy to implement	2. We need to keep the training data in memory	
3. Guarantees that it "works"	3. Choosing the right K can be tricky	
	4. Sensitive to noisy features	
	5. May perform badly in high dimensions	



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K-Nearest Neighbor: Practical Use

Two practical issues about K-NN

- Choosing number of neighbors K
- Choosing distance metric between test sample \mathbf{x} and training data $\mathbf{x_n},\ n=1,\ldots,N$

$$\|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x_n}\|_p = \left(\sum_{d=1}^D |x_d - x_{nd}|^p\right)^{1/p}, \ p \ge 1$$

The above are called hyperparameters. They are not estimated through the learning process, but are externally set before the beginning of the learning process.



K-Nearest Neighbor: Model parameters and Hyperparameters

- Hyperparameters: Parameters set before the beginning of the learning process
 - For K-NN: number of neighbors K, distance metric
- Hyperparameter tuning: The process of choosing a set of optimal hyperparameters for the learning process
- Model parameters: The parameters learned during the learning process
 - For K-NN: As we said, KNN is non-parametric. Next lecture, we will list these for linear regression.

K-Nearest Neighbor: Hyperparameter turning using a validation set

Training Data (or training set)

- N samples/datapoints/instances: $\mathcal{D}^{train} = \{(\mathbf{x}_1, y_1), \dots, (\mathbf{x}_N, y_N)\}$
- Used for learning representation $f: \mathbf{x} \to \mathbf{y}$

Testing Data

- M samples/datapoints/instances: $\mathcal{D}^{test} = \{(\mathbf{x}_1, y_1), \dots, (\mathbf{x}_M, y_M)\}$
- Used to assess how well $f(\cdot)$ will do in predicting an unseen sample

Validation Data (or validation/development set)

- L samples/datapoints/instances: $\mathcal{D}^{dev} = \{(\mathbf{x}_1, y_1), \dots, (\mathbf{x}_l, y_l)\}$
- Used to optimize hyperparameter(s)

Train, test, validation data should **not** overlap
$$\mathcal{D}^{train} \cap \mathcal{D}^{test} \cap \mathcal{D}^{dev} = \emptyset$$



Recipe for hyperparameter turning with validation set

- For each hyperparameter value (or combination of values)
 - Train model using \mathcal{D}^{train}
 - Evaluate model performance on \mathcal{D}^{dev}

For K-NN: For K = 1, 3, ...

- For all $\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{D}^{dev}$, assign each sample to the majority class determined by its neighbors from the train data (see previous slide, K-Nearest Neighbor: Representation, K-NN Model)
- Evaluate accuracy/error rate, etc. using all $\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{D}^{dev}$
- ullet Chose the model with the best performance on \mathcal{D}^{dev}

For K-NN: Choose *K* with the best accuracy/error rate, etc.

ullet Evaluate the model on the test set \mathcal{D}^{test}

For K-NN: Similarly as we did for evaluating on \mathcal{D}^{dev}

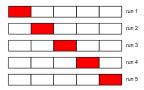


Cross-validation

What if we don't have a validation set?

We perform cross-validation

- Split train data into S equal parts
- Use each part as a validation set and all others as train set
- Chose the hyperparameter value (or combination of values) that results in best average performance.
 - Average computed across validation sets from all folds





Recipe for cross-validation

- ullet Split train data into S equal parts, each noted as $\mathcal{D}_s^{\textit{train}}$, s=1,...,S
- ullet For each hyperparameter value (e.g. $\mathcal{K}=1,3,\ldots$)
 - For each $s = 1, \dots, S$
 - ullet Train model using $\mathcal{D}^{\textit{train}} \setminus \mathcal{D}^{\textit{train}}_{\mathcal{S}}$
 - ullet Evaluate model performance (noted as E_s) on \mathcal{D}_s^{train}
 - Compute average performance for current hyperparameter $E = \frac{1}{s} \sum_{s=1}^{s} E_s$
- Chose the hyperparameter corresponding to best average performance E
- ullet Use the best hyperparameter to train on a model using all \mathcal{D}^{train}
- ullet Evaluate the last model on \mathcal{D}^{test}



Previously we have used the euclidean distance

(dominated by noise if #useful features is much smaller than #noisy features)

$$nn(\mathbf{x}) = arg \min_{n=1,...,N} \|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x_n}\|_2^2 = arg \min_{n=1,...,N} \sum_{d=1}^{D} (x_d - x_{nd})^2$$

We can also use alternative distances

• L₁, Manhattan, or city block distance

$$nn(\mathbf{x}) = arg \min_{n=1,...,N} \|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x_n}\|_1 = arg \min_{n=1,...,N} \sum_{d=1}^{D} |x_d - x_{nd}|$$

• Hamming distance (discrete data, # non-matching attributes)

$$nn(\mathbf{x}) = arg \min_{n=1,\dots,N} \sum_{d=1}^{D} 1(x_d \neq x_{nd})$$

where 1(a) = 1 if a true, 0 otherwise



Different distances might result in different sorting between samples Example 1

- train data: A(3,1,1) belonging to class 1, B(2,2,2) belonging to class 2
- test data: *X*(1,1,1)
- $I_1(A, X) = |2| + |0| + |0| = 2$ $I_1(B, X) = |1| + |1| + |1| = 3$ $\rightarrow X \text{ in class } 1$
- $I_2(A, X) = \sqrt{|2|^2 + |0| + |0|} = 2$ $I_2(B, X) = \sqrt{|1|^2 + |1|^2 + |1|^2} = \sqrt{3}$ $\rightarrow X \text{ in class } 2$



Distances depend on the units of the features

Example: one feature in cm and one in mm

dist(
$$\mathbf{p_1}$$
, $\mathbf{p_2}$) = $\sqrt{(60-10)^2+(6-1)^2}$ = 2525 dist($\mathbf{p_1}$, $\mathbf{p_3}$) = $\sqrt{(60-10)^2+(6-1)^2}$ = 2526 dist($\mathbf{p_1}$, $\mathbf{p_3}$) = $\sqrt{(60-10)^2+(1-1)^2}$ = 2500 rel_change_{x-axis} = $100 \cdot \frac{6-1}{6}\% = 83\%$ rel_change_{dist} = $100 \cdot \frac{2525-2500}{2500}\% = 1\%$

Proximity can change due to change in feature scales Larger-scale features tend to inflate distance measure



Normalize data so that they have comparable range

Value changes across any feature can be equally reflected to the distance metric, when features are normalized

$$x_{nd} := rac{x_{nd} - \bar{x}_d}{s_d}$$
 $ar{x}_d = rac{1}{N} \sum_{n} x_{nd}, \ \ s_d = rac{1}{N-1} \sum_{n} (x_{nd} - \bar{x}_d)^2$



Question

Assume the following train samples: Class 1: $y_1 = (10, 4)$, $y_2 = (10, 13)$, $y_3 = (10, 16)$

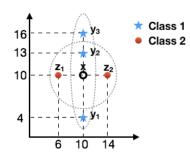
Class 2: $z_1 = (6, 10), z_2 = (14, 10)$

And the following distance metrics:

$$D_{1} = (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_{k})^{T} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_{k})$$

$$D_{2} = (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_{k})^{T} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1/3 \end{bmatrix} (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_{k})$$
In which class would a K-NN

classifier (K=3) classify sample \mathbf{x} using distances D_1 and D_2 ?



- A) Class 1 for both D_1 and D_2
- B) Class 2 for both D_1 and D_2
- C) Class 1 for D_1 , Class 2 for D_2
- D) Class 2 for D_1 , Class 1 for D_2



The correct answer is D

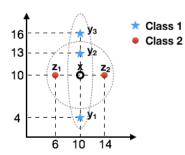
$$D_1 = (x_1 - x_{k1})^2 + (x_2 - x_{k2})^2$$

$$D_1 = (x_1 - x_{k1})^2 + \frac{1}{3}(x_2 - x_{k2})^2$$

Train Sample	D_1	D_2
У1	36	12
y ₂	9	3
y 3	36	12
z ₁	16	16
z ₂	16	16

The 3 nearest neighbors of \mathbf{x} based on D_1 are $\mathbf{y_2}$, $\mathbf{z_1}$, $\mathbf{z_2}$, so K-NN decides Class 2

The 3 nearest neighbors of \mathbf{x} based on D_2 are $\mathbf{y_1}$, $\mathbf{y_2}$, $\mathbf{y_3}$, so K-NN decides Class 1



- A) Class 1 for both D_1 and D_2
- B) Class 2 for both D_1 and D_2
- C) Class 1 for D_1 , Class 2 for D_2
- D) Class 2 for D_1 , Class 1 for D_2



What to do in the case of a tie?

- Randomly assign a class
- Assign the class with the highest frequency in the training set
- Classify the test sample according to the closest training sample (1-NN), or according to the K-1 or K+1 training samples
- decide by assigning a weight to each vote according to its distance from the test sample (i.e. weighted K-NN)



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Condensed Nearest Neighbor

- Approximate way to reduce time/space complexity of K-NN
- Decrease number of stored training samples
- Select the smallest subset $\mathcal Z$ of $\mathcal D^{train}$, such that when $\mathcal Z$ is used, error does not increase
- Subset Z is determined once before running K-NN, therefore the high computational cost is not during testing
- Local search that depends on the order of training samples
 - Non-unique solution



Condensed Nearest Neighbor

Algorithm 1 Pseudocode for Condensed Nearest Neighbor

- 1: Randomly initialize ${\mathcal Z}$ with a sample from ${\mathcal D}^{train}$
- 2: repeat
- 3: **for** $\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{D}^{train}$ (in random order) **do**
- 4: Find $\mathbf{x}' \in \mathcal{Z}$ closest to \mathbf{x}
- 5: **if** $class(x) \neq class(x')$ **then**
- 6: add \mathbf{x} to \mathcal{Z}
- 7: end if
- 8: end for
- 9: **until** \mathcal{Z} does not change



Distance Weighting

- K-NN assumes that similar instances mean similar things
- Hence samples closest to the query point might matter most
- Weight each neighbor by their closeness to the test sample

$$w_k = \frac{\exp\left(-dist(\mathbf{x}, nn_k(\mathbf{x}))\right)}{\sum_{k \in knn(\mathbf{x})} \exp\left(-dist(\mathbf{x}, nn_k(\mathbf{x}))\right)}$$

$$v_c = \sum_{k \in knn(\mathbf{x})} w_k \cdot \mathbb{I}(y_k = c), \quad c = 1, \dots, C$$

$$y = f(\mathbf{x}) = \arg\max_{c=1,\dots,C} v_c$$



Summary

- Described a simple learning algorithm (K-NN)
 - non-parametric (instance-based) learning algorithm
 - "similar inputs will have similar outputs"
 - high computational cost for large data, i.e. O(ND), N: #samples, D: dimensionality
 - guaranteed to approach Bayes error rate under ideal conditions
- Practical issues
 - ullet number of neighbors, type of distance o (cross-)validation
- Computationally "cheaper" options (e.g. condensed K-NN)
- Reading materials
 - Alpaydin 8.1-8.5